

Historic, archived document

Do not assume content reflects current scientific knowledge, policies, or practices.

321,9
R31

op. 2

family economics. review

Consumer and Food Economics Institute
Agricultural Research Service

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

- 3 Implications of Population Trends for Quality of Life -
Calvin L. Beale
- 8 Additional Copies of Family Economics Review
- 9 Outlook for Food Prices, Consumption, and Expenditures
- 12 Clothing and Textiles: Supplies, Prices, and Outlook for 1973 -
Virginia Britton
- 17 The Outlook for Consumer Affairs - Lee Richardson
- 21 FTC Rules on Door-to-Door and Mail-Order Selling
- 22 Issues in Controlling Pollution - H. G. Geyer
- 25 Social Security Benefits Increase
- 26 New Reports from the 1965-66 Household Food Consumption Survey
- 27 Some New USDA Publications
- 28 Cost of Food at Home, U.S. and Regions
- 31 Consumer Prices

U. S. DEPT. OF AGRICULTURE
NATIONAL AGRICULTURAL LIBRARY
RECEIVED

MAY 14 1973

ARS 62-5
MARCH 1973

PROCUREMENT SECTION
CURRENT SERIAL RECORDS

CONTENTS OF THIS ISSUE

This issue is made up, for the most part, of condensations of papers prepared for the National Agricultural Outlook Conference, held in Washington, D.C., February 20-24, 1973. For a copy of the complete text, send your request -- giving the title and author of the article -- to the Consumer and Food Economics Institute, Agricultural Research Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Federal Center Building, Hyattsville, Md. 20782. Please give your ZIP code with your return address.

Family Economics Review is a quarterly report on research by the Consumer and Food Economics Institute and on information from other sources relating to economic aspects of family living. It is developed by Katherine S. Tippet and Marilyn Doss Ruffin, family economists, with the cooperation of other staff members of the Institute. It is prepared primarily for home economics specialists of the Cooperative Extension Service.

IMPLICATIONS OF POPULATION TRENDS FOR QUALITY OF LIFE

Calvin L. Beale, Economic Research Service

The size and distribution of our population have been subjects of public concern at several points in our history, but the rapid rise of quality of life concerns -- dominated by environmental issues -- has significantly reshaped our perspective on the implications of current population trends.

Size of population. -- I think it fair to say that an end to population growth for the nation -- and in time for the world -- is a widely accepted objective today. Ultimately there are limits to the number of people the world can accommodate under any standard of living. In the United States, there seems to be little sentiment for an actual decrease in population. But the recent Presidential-Congressional Commission on Population Growth and the American Future reported its strong conviction that it had "found no convincing argument for continued national population growth. On the contrary, the plusses seem to be on the side of slowing growth and eventually stopping it altogether."^{1/} The Commission then went on to marshal evidence that slower growth would increase average income, conserve energy, avert pollution, and provide "an opportunity to devote resources to the quality of life rather than its quantity."^{1/}

With the growth trend of the Nation in a state of change, a review of recent birth trends seems in order. After a 2-year rise in 1969 and 1970, the birth rate turned downward in April 1971. No one knows why a marked downward deflection took place at that particular time, but in every month since then the number of births has been below that of the same month in the preceding year. Other things being equal, the birth rate would have increased in this period, because of rapid growth in the population of prime childbearing age, as children born in the post-World War II baby boom came of age. But clearly other things have not been equal. The crude birth rate fell from 18.2 births per thousand total population in 1970 to 15.7 per thousand in 1972. This is the lowest crude birth rate in American history, and also the lowest when related solely to women of childbearing age. If no further decline were to occur, the present rates would provide a level of childbearing just above that needed for parental replacement. But the decline shows no sign of halting yet, and 1973's births may well be below the number ultimately needed for replacement.

The decline in births is paralleled by a decline in expressed childbearing expectations. During the 1950's and 1960's, expressed preferences and expectations about family size were remarkably stable, commonly averaging out to about 3.2 or 3.3 children per woman. These levels became observed in practice as well as in preference. With only about 2.1 children ever born per woman required for generational replacement, such fertility led to growth rates of 50 percent per generation, and was the source of our rapid national population increase from 1950 to 1970. But the number of births that

^{1/} Population and the American Future, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1972.

women say they expect to have has now dropped to 2.4 per woman in 1972, and 2.3 among wives under 25 years old. ^{2/}

Our society has thus undergone a major shift in its childbearing intentions in just a few years. Given the human capacity to bear much larger numbers of children, a shift from an average of 3.3 children to 2.3 is not major in absolute terms, but it is dramatic in its effect on growth rates and on the potential future size of the U.S. population.

If the experience of other nations that have liberalized their abortion laws is any model, one effect of the recent Supreme Court decision on abortion will be to further lower the birth rate in this decade. But whatever the near term level of the birth rate, it is necessary to keep in mind that the present young adult population is much larger than the older population from which most deaths occur. Thus, the United States would continue to grow in population beyond the end of this century, and exceed 250 million, even if births occurred only at generational replacement levels from now on and net immigration ceased. But this is a decided shift downward from the prospect of 300 million people by the year 2000 that seemed likely less than 10 years ago.

Despite a professional and lay consensus of reasonable proportions that growth of the U.S. population is a serious problem, the measurable relationship between total population size or growth and impairment of quality of life is by no means always direct, major, or even clear. For example, our society is making strenuous efforts to combat environmental pollution, and this problem is often linked with population growth. But, notwithstanding the huge increase in the U.S. population since World War II, it is not population growth that is the paramount cause of environmental quality problems. Perhaps the best illustration of this contention is in the area of electric power. Since 1950, electric energy consumption has increased by more than 350 percent. In the same period population grew by just 37 percent. Thus, only one-ninth of the increased use of electric energy -- with its serious attendant problems of air and water pollution, fossil fuel depletion, and strip mining -- can be ascribed to population growth. The rest is the result of enormously increased per capita usage. The projection of needs for the rest of the century follows the same pattern. Major additions to present capacity will be needed, but only a fraction of the need will stem from increased population.

Natural gas usage from 1950 to 1970 rose by 265 percent and use of crude petroleum by more than 110 percent. The number of cars and trucks in use has gone up about 120 percent since 1950. The percentage of families owning two or more cars rose from 7 percent in 1950 to 28 percent in 1971. It is the rising standard of living that is the major source of our problems in the energy and vehicle-related environmental fields, not the growth of population.

The volume of farm production rose only moderately above population growth -- 52 percent against 37 percent. But to achieve this output, the application of fertilizers was doubled, and that of pesticides apparently increased even more. Even in the case of the U.S. mail -- a major service whose quality is widely thought to have declined -- three-fifths of the increase in domestic work load since 1950 is accounted for by greater

^{2/} Bureau of the Census, "Birth Expectations and Fertility: June 1972." Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 240, Sept. 1972 (in cooperation with National Institute of Child Health and Human Development), p. 1.

per capita use of the mails rather than greater population. If the National and State parks are becoming overcrowded, it is largely because overnight visits more than doubled in just 10 years (1960-70) while population grew at one-sixth of that rate.

These are simple measures, but the wide disparity in growth rates between population and consumption of service items leaves no question that the rapid growth in demand for the items mentioned is due primarily to greater per capita usage. Neither the recent nor potential growth of our total population is the crux of our environmental quality problems, although population growth has contributed to them.

So far as general social and economic indicators of quality of life go, it is difficult to say that the total size of the U.S. population has thus far been an impediment to overall progress, although the suddenness of growth has created stresses. Most measures relating to educational attainment, average money incomes, housing adequacy, or leisure activities have advanced very rapidly despite steady population growth. The health picture is somewhat mixed. There have been large increases in two decades in the assets and personnel of hospitals, and in the proportion of the population covered by health insurance. Yet, the expectation of life has been slow to increase further, especially for men. But this failure is not to my knowledge thought to be a result of larger population. Lower future population growth should yield societal benefits, but will not be a corrective for our quality-of-life problems.

Distribution of the population. -- The last decade has seen a marked development of concern over the distributional trend of the population. There are those who believe that the concentration of people in metropolitan centers is the source of more problems than the total size or growth of the Nation. Problems of pollution, traffic, crime, social alienation and dependency, and race relations are all felt to have been aggravated by the increased massing of people in several major urban regions. This concern is complemented by another concern--the presumed serious deterioration in the fabric of declining rural communities, caused by loss of population, especially loss of the better trained young people.

The trend of concentration is beyond dispute. The total rural population--that is, people in open country and towns of less than 2,500 inhabitants--has been nearly stationary since 1920, while the urban population has nearly tripled, increasing by 100 million. Perhaps more importantly, 71 million--or 35 percent--of our population now live in urbanized areas that have over 1 million people each. And in the period since World War II we have seen the development of the megalopolis or urban region concept, in which one metropolitan area merges into another and a new level of aggregation evolves, especially along the North Atlantic Coast, the Lower Great Lakes, and in California.

Is this good or bad? Given the utter inability of agricultural areas to provide employment for their existing labor force, let alone their natural increase, and given the aggregating advantages for employment, services, and income that metropolitan cities have had in the recent past, the concentration may well have been inevitable, whether good or bad. Major social and economic trends seldom move slowly enough for government and society to cope with them in an ideal manner. Furthermore, the worldwide nature of rural exodus and urban growth makes it clear that the process has completely transcended national borders, political systems, and differences in agricultural policies.

The reaction of nations to the process of urbanization is, I suspect it is fair to say, one of initial pleasure and pride at the emergence of great cities with the amenities, broader life chances, and intellectual stimulation they afford. But if the residential balance shifts too fast or too far a reaction ensues, perhaps at first dominated by lingering agrarian sentiments and then by apprehension that the very advantages of the city are being degraded and lost by overwhelming growth and change.

A number of nations have adopted policies in recent years to attempt to moderate, rationalize, or hopefully halt the drift to the cities, or to revitalize lagging regions. France, the United Kingdom, Sweden, Brazil, and the United States are examples. In recent U.S. legislation, such as the Rural Development Act of 1972 or the Agricultural Act of 1970, the detrimental effect of rural-urban migration and the problems of major cities are specifically asserted and identified as conditions to which the legislation is addressed.

How is the quality of life affected by population distribution trends? There are some things that can be said with reasonable certainty. Up to this time, the larger the proportion of Americans who live in metropolitan-size communities -- the larger the proportion who live with ready access to college education or medical facilities; the lower the proportion who live in substandard housing or with poverty-level incomes; and the higher the proportion of women who find opportunities for employment outside the home at better than low-skilled jobs and subsistence wages.

On the other hand, the greater the metropolitan concentration, the greater the percentage of the population engaged in or victimized by crimes, either of violence or against property; the greater the proportion of youth susceptible to drug use; the greater the exposure to air pollution; and the less the likelihood of owning one's home. In short, there are trade-offs, and it is in large part a matter of personal judgment as to what the net effects of population distribution patterns are on quality of life.

One unsettled issue is the effect of massing and density of population on human beings. The noted scientist and writer Rene Dubos was cited by former Secretary Orville Freeman as saying, "Some of the most profound effects of the environment created by urban and technicized civilization may not be on physical health, but on behavioral patterns and mental development."^{3/} After a review of the state of knowledge in this area, the Population Commission concluded that "In general, the research on the effects of population density on human behavior is sparse and the findings either inconclusive or negative. Despite popular belief, the evidence is lacking to show that social pathology is associated with density itself."^{4/}

Aside from the conditions of life that can be quantitatively assessed, we must also consider what people believe to be true, for beliefs -- however incorrectly held -- become real in their effects, if acted upon. Several surveys in recent years have attempted to determine residential preferences and to identify the advantages that people perceive in urban or rural life. In a national survey made for the Commission on Population Growth and the American Future, 56 percent of the population described themselves

^{3/} Freeman, Orville L., address at the annual convention of the National Association of Counties, Detroit, Mich., Aug. 2, 1967, p. 8.

^{4/} See footnote 1 on p. 3, (p. 69).

as living in a medium or large city or in the suburbs of such a place, but only 35 percent expressed a preference to live in such places. ^{5/} The implication was that a net of about 21 percent of the adult population would prefer to live in the open country or a small town or city, rather than in their present metro setting. Three-eighths of these people considered themselves very likely to make such a move within the next few years, and an additional fourth thought they would make such a move in the more distant future. This preference pattern I think we must accept as a matter of fact. It is supported by other surveys. The net yearning of the people seems to be away from metro centers and suburbs at the very time that metro concentration has reached new levels.

The forces that have produced metropolitanization are unlikely to be casually displaced, however. Nor do we really yet know what the small town and open country preference consists of. Surveys in Washington and Wisconsin reveal that the predominant preference of metropolitan residents in those States who want a change is for a locality that is small-scale in character but that is not too far beyond the urbanized areas. ^{6/} Thus, they appear to want accessibility to urban employment and services but not residential involvement in either the city or the suburbs. The implication would seem to be even greater sprawl and a more dispersed form of metropolitanization.

The Washington survey and a national one ^{7/} have dealt with the images that people have of urban and rural settings. These surveys seem to agree that, wherever they live, the great majority of people believe that the availability of good jobs is best in metropolitan cities. A majority perceive recreation - entertainment opportunities and medical care to be best in the cities. On the other hand, even metro residents themselves believe that rural and small town people are friendlier, more likely to be in good general or mental health, have more voice in community affairs, and that rural communities are the best places in which to rear children.

It also seems possible to detect some differences in attitudes and values on the part of urban and rural people that are relevant for discussions of population distribution policy. The sociologist Norval Glenn reviewed national opinion polls in which the views of rural and urban residents were distinguished. ^{8/} On some issues, the two populations showed no meaningful differences, but in other areas such as religion, the role of women,

^{5/} Commission on Population Growth and the American Future, "Analysis of Commission's Public Opinion Survey." Unpublished memorandum, Oct. 15, 1971.

^{6/} Dillman, Don A., and Russell P. Dubash, Preferences for Community Living and Their Implications for Population Redistribution. Washington Agricultural Experiment Station Bulletin 764, Pullman, 1972. Zuiches, James J., and Glenn V. Fuguitt, Residential Preferences: Implications for Population Redistribution in Nonmetropolitan Areas. Paper presented to the American Association for the Advancement of Science, Philadelphia, Pa., Dec. 28, 1971.

^{7/} National Rural Electric Cooperative Association, The Nation's View of Rural America and Rural Electrification -- A Summary. Washington, D.C., 1969.

^{8/} Glenn, Norval D., "Massification Versus Differentiation: Some Trend Data from National Surveys," Social Forces, vol. 46, No. 2, Dec. 1967.

liquor laws, and corporal punishment in school, they differed significantly -- with rural people in each case taking what might be termed a more conservative attitude.

Furthermore, voting patterns can still be sufficiently different between metropolitan and nonmetropolitan residents to affect the outcome of major elections. In 1968, nonmetropolitan voters cast only 30 percent of the total U.S. vote in the presidential election, but it was their wide preference for the Republican ticket that produced President Nixon's winning margin. The Democratic ticket had a narrow plurality in the metro areas, where 70 percent of the vote was cast, but lost the election.

If more people from the metropolitan centers settled in the small cities and the countryside, would their philosophical views and outlook change in the smaller-scale communities? If more rural youth remained in the country, would the differences between countryside and city be gradually widened? I don't think we can say with certainty. But we should be aware that there are differences in the proportions of urban and rural people who adhere to given values or viewpoints, and that population distribution policies do have implications -- whether implicit or explicit -- for the overall ideological outlook of the Nation. Whatever the economic possibilities for the greater dispersal of the population in smaller-scale communities, the belief that such a policy is desirable or not desirable is a value judgment itself, determined as much by social heritage and personal convictions as by facts objectively derived and impersonally viewed. There is no one optimum population size or distribution.

ADDITIONAL COPIES OF FAMILY ECONOMICS REVIEW

Because Family Economics Review is a free publication, we are able to send only one copy to each name on the mailing list. Please do not request additional copies. You may, of course, duplicate copies to meet your needs.

OUTLOOK FOR FOOD PRICES, CONSUMPTION, AND EXPENDITURES

Economic and Statistical Analysis Division Economic Research Service

Food prices. -- Food prices accelerated in 1972 despite wage and price controls. A number of factors combined to push up prices last year in the face of numerous efforts on the part of the Price Commission and the food trade to hold the line. First of all there was a decline in the per capita supply of meat. In addition, the fruit crop was down significantly from 1971. The slackening in supplies came at an inopportune time, when incomes were rising rapidly and significant slowdowns in prices of many other items gave consumers one of the sharpest boosts in purchasing power of the last several years.

The pattern of prices this year looks very much the same as a year ago. There were large increases late in 1972, when we ordinarily expect decreases or at least some stability. In January and February there were large increases in meat prices, perhaps even larger than a year ago. To make the situation worse, there will likely be some further increases in prices of most staple items. At this time there is little or no hope that any broad based price decreases will occur this year. The only exceptions are the expected decline in pork prices in the second half of the year and likely declines in poultry prices after the first quarter. Even so, prices of poultry will remain mostly above a year earlier. Because of the sharp increases late last year and early this year, food prices likely will average around 6 percent higher than in 1972. Prices of food at home may rise 6 to 6.5 percent. Most of the rise will come from farm prices, which likely will rise more than the 8.7 percent of 1972.

After the sharp increases in food prices early last year, price control officials and members of the food industry met to discuss potential ways of keeping food prices from rising further. As a result of the discussion and an easing of farm prices during the spring and early summer, retail prices were relatively stable. As the second half of the year began, farm prices began rising and marketing margins were under pressure from higher costs. Thus retail prices, farm prices, and marketing costs all began to rise quite sharply. As the year came to a close, the seasonally adjusted index was rising sharply with further increases on the horizon. Although food prices rose more than non-food prices in 1972, food prices have risen less than nonfood since 1960 (fig. 1).

The rise in food prices in 1972 was concentrated among a few commodities. More than 80 percent of the 4.5 percent increase in cost of food at home was accounted for by beef, pork, fish, and fresh fruits and vegetables. Pork alone accounted for more than 25 percent. Price increases for more staple items were mostly within the range of 1 to 2 percent.

Farm prices rose almost 9 percent last year and accounted for seven-tenths of the increase in retail food prices. Wholesale prices of food rose about 5.5 percent. The farm-retail spread increased 2.4 percent, significantly less than the 3.4 percent rise in wholesale prices of industrial commodities.

Food consumption. -- Per capita food consumption edged slightly lower in 1972 but is expected to rebound and set a new record in 1973. Last year, consumption of meat products fell nearly 2 percent as smaller pork supplies and a drop in veal consumption

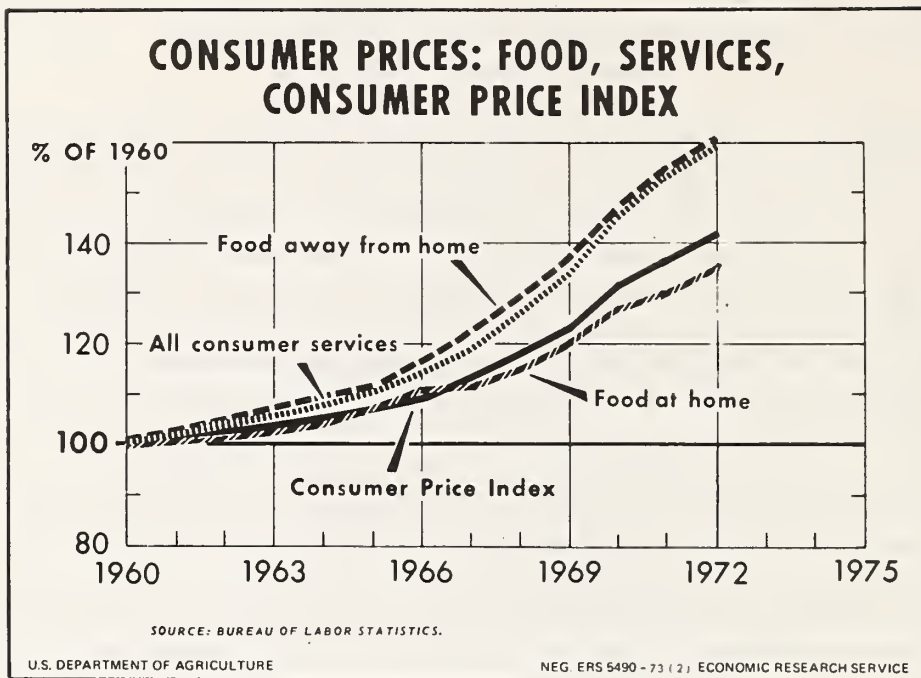


Figure 1

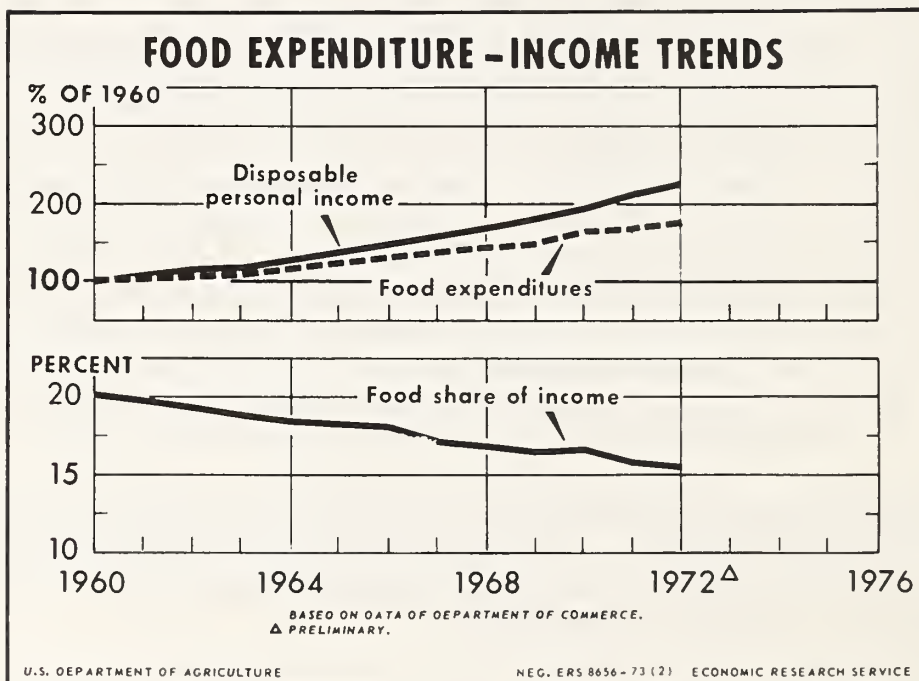


Figure 2

more than offset small increases for beef and for lamb and mutton. Fruit consumption also was lower in 1972 reflecting unfavorable growing conditions for grapes, pears, and raisins.

Part of the decline for meat, eggs, and animal oils was offset by a rise for poultry, fish, and dairy products. On the crops side, the decline in fruit consumption was completely offset by an increase in use of potatoes, vegetable oils, and miscellaneous items.

Expenditures. -- Food expenditures in 1972 rose to \$125 billion, 6 percent above a year earlier (fig. 2). The increase was more than in 1971, but largely reflected higher prices; per capita consumption was about the same as in 1971. Expenditures on meals eaten away from home rose almost 8 percent, twice the pace of a year earlier. The level of expenditures in constant dollars advanced in 1972; it had fallen in 1971. Expenditures for food eaten at home rose less than 6 percent in 1972. Much of the increase reflected the sharp jump in expenditures for livestock-related food products, primarily red meats; per capita consumption declined but was more than compensated by the very sharp price advances. Expenditures for crop-related food products reflected a slight increase in consumption and a moderate advance in prices.

Food accounted for 15.7 percent of disposable income in 1972, declining from 15.8 percent in 1971.

Consumers are likely to increase sharply their expenditures for food in 1973. Disposable personal income, bolstered by an increase in employment and wages and a large income tax refund from 1972, will be up almost 9.5 percent. Per capita consumption may rise above 1972 levels, and with a 6 percent increase in prices, food expenditures will probably rise around 7.5 percent. The brisker advance for disposable income, however, will cause the share of income allocated to food to drop to 15.5 percent.

Food programs. -- The value of USDA Food Programs rose almost 13 percent to \$3.5 billion in 1972. The percent of total food expenditures accounted for by Government sponsored food programs, rose from 2.7 percent in 1971 to 2.8 percent in 1972. Most of the increase came from the Food Stamp Program, which rose \$293 million to almost \$2 billion. Part of this advance reflected the continuing shift from commodity distribution to the Food Stamp program. Changes in eligibility requirements, increases in the allotment of bonus stamps, and increased participation in the wake of Hurricane Agnes also contributed to the advance. The value of child nutrition programs went up over \$181 million, primarily reflecting increases in the school lunch and breakfast programs. Direct commodity donations to schools fell almost \$16 million.

Five hundred thousand more people participated in family food programs in 1972, bringing total participation to nearly 15 million people. The number of participants has risen 9 million since 1967, but increases are slowing as the number of eligibles not participating has been greatly reduced. Among family food programs in 1972, participation in commodity distribution fell by 600,000 as more areas shifted to food stamps. Bonus stamp participation rose 1.1 million. Participation in school lunch programs totaled nearly 25 million children, up slightly from last year. However, participation in the school breakfast program increased by 200,000 to 1.1 million children.

CLOTHING AND TEXTILES: SUPPLIES, PRICES, AND OUTLOOK FOR 1973

Virginia Britton, Consumer and Food Economics Institute

Clothing expenditures and prices. -- Consumers spent about \$296 per person on clothing and shoes in 1972, according to preliminary data. This was \$21 higher than in 1971. Although part of the increase was caused by inflation, there was an increase of almost 5 percent in terms of dollars of constant value (table 1).

The increase in the price level for apparel and upkeep in 1972 (at 2.1 percent) was less than in any year since 1965. The rise for clothing continued to be less than for the all-items index of the Consumer Price Index (table 2). Among the three apparel subgroups, footwear led the price advance, as it frequently does, and men's and boys' clothing increased least. According to reports from manufacturers, price increases in 1973 may be noteworthy for certain items. Prices of leather shoes and accessories for spring 1973 and leather outerwear for fall 1973 are expected to reflect higher leather prices in 1972. Prices of woolen garments in fall 1973 may be 10 percent or more higher than a year earlier because of sharply rising prices of wool in 1972.

With continued expansion of the economy in 1973 and some increase in prices, the average person will spend more on clothing than in 1972, and his spending will also advance in terms of dollars of constant value.

Supplies of raw materials. -- Use of all fibers by U.S. mills in 1972 was estimated to have increased about 7.5 percent over 1971 on a per capita basis. Most of the increase was in manmade fibers. A total of 55.5 pounds of fiber per capita were used in 1972, including 18.5 of cotton, 1 of wool, and 36 of manmade fibers.

Fiber use per capita was 55 percent higher than in 1960, reflecting rising consumer incomes (about 47 percent per capita in dollars of constant value). Use of cotton decreased 21 percent per capita and that of wool decreased 53 percent, whereas use of manmade fibers increased 245 percent.

Cotton supply in the United States is ample, because the 1972 cotton crop was almost one-third larger than that of 1971. Wool production (apparel class) in the United States is expected to decline further in 1973, despite increased prices of raw wool. Larger imports of raw apparel wool in 1973 will help meet the demand, but at higher prices than last year. Wool prices have staged a strong comeback after falling to Depression levels in 1971. The predicted revival of worsteds for fall 1973 suitings may be restricted by the high prices of wool; wool-look polyesters may be used instead. For manmade fibers, U.S. producing capacity is expected to be 13 percent higher by November 1974 than in November 1972. About one-half of the projected increases are for polyester. J. P. Stevens and Co. predicted that existing manmade fibers will probably "enjoy all the growth potential in fabrics" in the next decade, with polyesters getting 55 percent of the U.S. market for noncellulosic fibers. U.S. production of hides (chiefly from cattle) in 1973 will probably be somewhat larger than in 1972, as more stock goes to market. World supplies of leather may increase some by the end of 1973. However, our supply of shoes is not dependent solely on our production of hides and leather. U.S. production of shoes with nonleather uppers and our imports of shoes constitute roughly one-half of the U.S. supply of shoes in recent years. Women's and misses' shoes retailing at less than \$10 will probably be all-vinyl.

Table 1.--Annual expenditures on clothing and shoes

Years <u>1/</u>	Per capita expenditures		Percent of expenditures for personal consumption		Aggregate expenditures	
	1958 dollars	Current dollars	1958 dollars	Current dollars	Billions of 1958 dollars	Billions of current dollars
1929 -----	149	77	13.0	12.1	18.2	9.4
1930-40 -----	122	51	11.8	10.7	15.6	6.5
1941-46 -----	151	100	11.8	12.9	20.7	13.7
1947-61 -----	144	140	9.0	9.4	23.5	22.9
1962-65 -----	160	170	8.4	8.3	30.6	32.4
1966 -----	185	204	8.7	8.6	36.4	40.3
1967 -----	184	213	8.5	8.6	36.6	42.3
1968 -----	188	231	8.3	8.6	37.8	46.3
1969 <u>2/</u> -----	191	248	8.3	8.7	38.8	50.2
1970 -----	188	254	8.1	8.4	38.5	52.0
1971 -----	196	275	8.2	8.6	40.6	56.9
1972 <u>3/</u> -----	205	296	8.2	8.6	42.9	61.9

1/ Earlier years are grouped on basis of similarity in level of per capita expenditures in 1958 dollars.

2/ Revised data for 1969 to 1971.

3/ Preliminary figures.

Source: Department of Commerce.

Table 2.--Annual percentage change in selected indexes of consumer prices

Index	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972
Consumer Price Index -----	+4.2	+5.4	+5.9	+4.3	+3.3
Apparel and Upkeep Index <u>1/</u> -----	+5.4	+5.8	+4.1	+3.2	+2.1
Men's and boys' clothing -----	+5.7	+6.3	+4.2	+2.7	+1.3
Women's and girls' clothing -----	+5.9	+5.5	+3.8	+3.5	+2.4
Footwear -----	+5.3	+6.2	+5.3	+3.2	+2.8

1/ Also includes infants' wear, sewing materials, jewelry, and apparel upkeep services, for which separate indexes are not available.

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Development of flammability standards and enforcement. -- Two flammability standards become effective during 1973. All children's sleepwear garments sizes 0 through 6x, manufactured after July 1973, and all mattresses and mattress pads manufactured after May 1973 must meet flammability standards set by the U.S. Department of Commerce under the Flammable Fabrics Act. The standards also contain plans for pre-market testing of these items. Industry sources claim that following the specified plan for pre-market testing of mattresses will increase costs 30 percent or more for small manufacturers of private label mattresses, and that mattresses selling at retail prices below \$65 may be eliminated as they are generally made with a large amount of cotton felt which does not meet the test requirements.

Flammability standards are being considered for children's sleepwear garments in sizes 7 through 14 and for fabrics used in upholstered furniture.

On October 27, 1972, the President signed the Act that authorized establishment of a five-man Consumer Product Safety Commission to assume jurisdiction over the safety aspects of many consumer products. Included were flammable fabrics (apparel and interior furnishings), which will ultimately be removed from the authority of the Federal Trade Commission (FTC). In the meantime, the FTC continues to enforce the flammability standards established under the Flammable Fabrics Act. The new Commission is to utilize the National Bureau of Standards for test development as far as practicable. The transfer of functions will be effective either 150 days after the signing of the Act or when three of the five Commissioners are appointed, whichever is later. (No Commissioners had been appointed as of February 7, 1973.)

Development of flame-retardant finishes and fabrics. -- With the present stress on flammability standards for clothing and textiles, much of the current effort in product development is in the area of flame-retardant finishes and fabrics. Recent reports from USDA's Southern Regional Research Laboratory (SRRL) include the development of flame-retardant finishes for:

- . Mattress ticking and fillers. These can be made flame retardant by coating the back of the mattress ticking and treating the cotton batting mattress filler.
- . Upholstery, drapery, and other speciality fabrics that are laundered infrequently. This finish was developed at SRRL in the 1950's and is now commercially available.

Other developments at SRRL have improved the washability of cotton fabrics and garments treated with flame-retardant finishes. Some cotton garments are now being treated commercially with finishes developed by SRRL. The aim of these finishes is to improve durability under laundering conditions while retaining flame-retardant properties, avoiding odor and yellowing of fabric, and maintaining the soft hand and strength of cotton. SRRL also reports that the flame-retardant finish on cotton garments can be protected by rinsing treated garments in a mild acid solution (for example, 8 ounces of white vinegar added to the rinse cycle in home laundering) after washing in hard water.

Flame-retardant finishes developed by industry include those for treating silk and polyester and for treating rugs (including shags of polyester, nylon, and wool), and nylon draperies, upholstery, and bedspreads.

Industry has also announced several flame-resistant fabrics, primarily for children's sleepwear and blankets. Some of these include fibers which are naturally flame-retardant, such as modacrylic and vinyon, and some include fibers requiring flame-retardant treatments. The flame-resistant fabrics include knit brushed cloth of modacrylic; knit modacrylic; blends of 25 percent cotton for absorbency with a fiber composed of 50 percent vinyon and 50 percent vinal; cotton thermal weave and waffle pique; warp knits of acetate; nylon, acetate, and acetate-polyester blends in brushed and unbrushed constructions; nylon warp knit; polyester with a flannel-like hand, polyester in light weight broadcloth, batiste, and brushed fabrics.

Other product developments. -- In addition to flame-retardant finishes and fabrics, recent product developments have emphasized further improvement in durable press and washability properties. USDA's SRRL has developed ways to increase the strength and abrasion resistance of cotton fabrics while still maintaining durable-press properties such as wrinkle resistance. The usual reaction of cotton and cotton blends to durable-press treatments has been to weaken the fabric. Other work at SRRL includes the development of a process for molding chemically treated stretch cotton fabric. Hats, fabric covered dolls, bra cups, plastic-coated upholstery, and cloth parts of shoes can be shaped by this technique. Woven stretch cottons produced by slack mercerization, developed at SRRL, may soon be on the market in sheets and shirts of cotton and cotton-polyester blends.

USDA's Western Regional Research Laboratory (WRRL) reports that the Wurset shrink-resist treatment of woven wool fabrics, and WRRL's low-temperature plasma treatment for machine washability for hand-knitting wool yarns are being tested for commercial feasibility. Tests of WRRL's durable-press finish on a wool double-knit blend have shown that the treated fabric retains its clear surface and good hand after repeated washing. Also, a process developed at WRRL for durable-press wool and wool blend fabrics is being used on fabrics and apparel slated for worldwide promotion and marketing.

Improvement of leather is promised by use of a process of graft polymerization developed at USDA's Eastern Regional Research Laboratory. The process forms a synthetic polymer within the leather which improves leather characteristics permanently and to a greater extent than conventional surface treatments. By varying the conditions of treatment or the acrylic compounds, the leather can be given more stretch (as for garments) or more firmness (so that sheepskins become usable for shoe uppers). Leathers modified by the process were generally stronger and more uniform in thickness. Some of the leathers could be dry cleaned without destroying the treatment. Research continues into the technical and economic feasibility of the new process.

Industry has announced improvements in cotton, wool, and manmade fabrics. These include shrinkage control, improved durable-press properties, and greater elasticity for cotton; shrinkage control and greater elasticity for wool; and a number of new or improved manmade fibers and blends. (Detailed information on these new developments is available in the complete text of this paper. To order see p. 2 for instructions.)

Other developments in standards and labels for textile products. -- The Federal Trade Commission has excluded certain items (in addition to shoes, gloves, and hats) from the requirement for permanent care labeling of textile wearing apparel which became effective for articles manufactured on or after July 3, 1972. Excluded were leather, suede, and fur products (but not textile apparel trimmed with those products); decorative, ornamental, or supportive items (as ties, handkerchiefs, belts, patches, and some scarves); piece goods remnants, 10 yards or less in length, and cut at the manufacturing level only; and piece goods sold as trim (5 inches or less in width). The FTC amended the example Number 4 of acceptable labeling instructions to read "Dry clean only." The original statement was: "Dry clean only. Do not use petroleum solvents, or the coin-operated method of dry cleaning." The FTC interprets "Dry clean only" to mean that any solvent or any process normally and regularly used in dry cleaning may be used without substantial impairment of the garment; this includes home and coin-operated methods. "Dry cleanable" means that the item could also be washed. Any restriction should be noted on the label, as, for example, "Professional dry clean only."

Enforcement of the care labeling rule may be complicated by a U.S. District Court ruling which says that the FTC has no substantive rulemaking power. The court ruling has been appealed. In the interim, the FTC will continue to exercise all available powers in order to insure compliance with the care labeling rule.

Recent announcements on voluntary standards for body size measurements of apparel by the National Bureau of Standards include the following:

- . Girls' apparel. Publication of standards was approved in 1972. Single copies are available for slims, regulars, and chubbies, in sizes 7 to 16.
- . Junior high girls' apparel. A draft has been submitted for a proposed new standard.
- . Infants' and toddlers' apparel. A revision has been proposed of the commercial standard published in 1951.

THE OUTLOOK FOR CONSUMER AFFAIRS

Lee Richardson, Office of Consumer Affairs

The consumer is being heard more than ever before. The volume of consumer complaints, the vigor of consumer organizations' activities, and the unfinished consumer business of Congress all attest to this fact. One of the chief changes in consumer affairs, however, is that there is an increasing recognition of the need for sound economic analysis of the issues. As the depth of inquiry into consumer problems has increased in the past few years, consumer advocates have discovered much broader implications for their proposals than many of them had originally thought. Business groups have also seen the significance of consumer issues and have recognized the need to deal with them through changes in production, marketing, and financial practices.

Several new key developments in consumer affairs in Washington and in the States are worthy of your professional attention and investigation. They include tough problem areas for which the consuming public needs good information and sound consumer education. You can help through many of the programs in which you work or cooperate on the Federal, State, and community levels.

Looking Back at Consumer Affairs

The legislative record of consumer advocates in the past is mixed, at best, but it may reveal some ideas on the future course of similar proposals.

The most striking feature of successful consumer activism has been its occurrence in cycles. The Progressive era prior to World War I yielded the FTC Act, the Pure Food and Drug Act, and the Meat Inspection Act, but the consumer legislation between 1914 and the mid-1930's was insignificant. The Great Depression period produced significant amendments to the FTC Act and strengthening of food and drug legislation, but Congressional consumer activity again became dormant from the start of World War II until the 1960's.

Both of these earlier periods were characterized by private consumer action groups as well as business responses to consumer activism. Better Business Bureaus originated in the Progressive era, which also had its muckrackers, ad hoc consumer committees, and two consumer leagues; which still exist. The 1930's produced Consumers Union, plus numerous books that said among other things that all Americans were guinea pigs for industry's products. Consumer groups were openly supported by large retailers in an unsuccessful war against fair trade and antichainstore legislation. Business Week did a feature article on the consumer movement in 1939, a further signal of the similarity between the 1930's period and the current wave which we now call consumerism.

The early 1960's first saw the thalidomide horrors followed by Congressional action on drug efficacy in 1962. Jessica Mitford's American Way of Death and Ruth Harmer's High Cost of Dying led to Congressional hearing on the funeral industry in 1964. President Kennedy created the Consumer Advisory Council and sent the first consumer message to Congress in 1962. The biggest event in the 5-year period prior to 1965 was the advent of Ralph Nader's book Unsafe at Any Speed that led to Congressional hearings.

The legislation that passed between 1962 and 1972 was significant in that it affected some promotional activities that had not previously been touched by Federal law. Truth-in-lending was, in 1968, the first significant Federal venture into consumer credit. The Fair Credit Reporting Act of 1971 was another milestone in credit information. Truth-in-packaging, in 1966, prescribed certain information and other matters for packages and labels in an effort to balance the powers of the buyers and sellers, primarily in the convenience goods field.

Significant legislative actions were taken in the health and safety fields through meat and poultry inspection and the creation of an independent product safety agency. The latter act was the most significant consumer action of the 92d Congress.

The legislative record of the consumer movement in the past few years is impressive by historical comparisons with decades past. It is even more impressive when the structure of the consumer movement itself is analyzed. The formal structure of the consumer movement, defined in terms of private consumer organizations, consists primarily of voluntary action by persons in their roles as members of households, plus some activists from universities, the legal profession, and labor unions.

The influence of consumer groups has been felt primarily through their general appeal to the nonmember public. Congress and the Executive Branch have in turn found public interest in many consumer issues to be high and have responded to these newly recognized problems. The press has contributed a great deal to the movement, because it, too, has found in its independent wisdom that consumerism is worthy of attention. In a favorable climate, consumer leaders have also discovered allies to assist them in particular battles. In sum, the time has come for the U.S. consumer.

Looking Ahead for the Short Run

Predictions of State and local action. -- An exciting trend toward dealing with consumer issues is now occurring in many statehouses. All but two States now have some type of office of consumer affairs. The majority of States locate this activity in the office of the Attorney General, while others place it in the Governor's office, Department of Agriculture, or other location. Several States have two or more agencies, divisions, or councils devoted to consumer problems. The growth of these offices has occurred mainly in the past 5 years. It is very easy to predict that these new offices are going to be increasingly effective as increased staffs and new authority are added by State legislatures. Similar to State activity, but growing at an even faster rate, are the city and county consumer offices. Today, there are 70 such offices and the potential is many thousand.

The activities of these State and local organizations can be expected to focus in the near future on three major thrusts: (1) Consumer complaint handling. Consumer offices will use a variety of remedies for aggrieved consumers: mediation, arbitration, referrals, and legal action. (2) Trade practice regulation. The agencies will discover the need for and obtain authority to handle various frauds and deceptive practices perpetrated against consumers. (3) Public information and consumer education. The more permanent changes in the marketplace come through changes in consumer behavior. More audio-visual aids will be used to reach the public. Cooperation with the established educational systems will increase.

Predictions of Federal action. -- The activities of the Federal Trade Commission (FTC) have been variously described as "overzealous" and "too little, too late." The potential effectiveness of the agency today, however, is seriously hindered by the fact that it does not have the power to act swiftly against unfair and deceptive practices with preliminary injunctions. Another important tool, the trade rule or regulation, was questioned by a recent court decision. This case is still awaiting appellate court action. FTC's future ability to deal with unfair and deceptive practices hinges on these two powers. If FTC lacks them, Congress may have to pass specific laws to deal with each unfair and deceptive practice.

No-fault automobile insurance almost slipped through in a crucial Senate test in 1972, and renewed battle is likely in the 93d Congress. The crucial question surrounding Federal no-fault legislation is the record of the States in passing laws of their own.

The reorganization of the entire financial system of the Nation should stir consumers. Legislation is being prepared for early introduction by spring 1973 that will expand the powers of thrift institutions. The Hunt Commission's report^{1/} in 1971 recommended that competition be emphasized as the means of reforming the Nation's financial institutions. The thrust of this Presidential Commission's proposals was to give powers to the various institutions that will tend to equalize them. Consumers will be interested in legislation that may enable credit unions to have checking accounts or that allows savings and loan associations or banks to pay rates as high as they wish on savings accounts.

The final report of the National Commission on Consumer Finance (NCCF)^{2/} appeared in January, and its recommendations in the field of consumer credit have already begun to trigger new debates on issues such as truth-in-lending, State usury laws, holder-in-due course, and related problems. These consumer credit debates were also fueled by a major report in November 1972 of the National Business Council for Consumer Affairs.^{3/} A revision of a model law, the Uniform Consumer Credit Code, is due for release in 1973, and the UCCC is before several State legislatures right now.

A final indicator of the attention due this field is the stiff debate that other credit bills received in the second session of the 92d Congress. In an announcement on January 8, Secretary of the Treasury George Schultz said that the 85 recommendations of NCCF would be considered along with the 89 recommendations of the Hunt Commission. The Administration's task force developing legislative proposals from these combined recommendations is working now to prepare what promises to be one of the most significant and complex legislative packages ever in the field of consumer finance.

^{1/} Report of the President's Commission on Financial Structure and Regulations, 1971. 173 pp. For sale for 75 cents by Supt. Doc., U.S. Govt. Print. Off., Washington, D.C. 20402.

^{2/} National Commission on Consumer Finance Report, Installment Credit Guide, "Consumer Credit in the U.S.," Issue No. 215, January 15, 1973. Available from Commerce Clearing House, Inc., 4025 West Peterson Ave., Chicago, Ill. 60646. \$3.00.

^{3/} "Financing the American Consumer--A Business Report on Consumer Credit." National Business Council for Consumer Affairs. November 1972. 26 pp. For sale for \$1.00 by U.S. Govt. Print. Off., Washington, D.C. 20402.

The most important consumer legislation so far introduced in 1973 is the Independent Consumer Protection Agency, which the last two Congresses have rejected. This bill will create an advocate of consumer interests within the Federal Government. While it would not have regulatory powers, this agency would serve as the primary focal point for persons seeking to reform and revitalize consumer programs of dozens of existing Federal agencies.

Predictions of industry action. -- A recent poll of industry public relations departments indicated that in 1973 consumerism would be the issue receiving their greatest attention. Much of that attention undoubtedly will be directed toward consumer legislation, notably independent consumer protection agency bills. Voluntary business action can and will do much more to improve the welfare of more customers than in the past. Industry has acted on unit pricing, open dating, development of complaint-handling offices, cosmetic ingredient labelling, and other issues. More progress in voluntary reform can be expected in the near future.

Looking Ahead for the Long Run

Of the many possibilities for longrun change in consumer affairs, several are especially interesting.

Insurance in many forms will become an important consumer issue. More Federal interest and increased State action are coming to deal with this most confusing area of consumer purchasing. As \$22 billion is spent on life insurance alone each year, it would seem advisable to know how to compare policy costs. Unfortunately, consumers are not getting the information they need to do so. Other insurance areas are getting attention besides no-fault and life insurance. Mail order policies, health policies, inner city property insurance, flood damage claims, and credit insurance are but a few of the areas of developing consumer interest.

Reform of the Nation's \$75 billion health delivery system will have to receive serious attention. The fragmentation of the insurance, medical, and hospital segments of the industry has led to a series of monumental inefficiencies that have in turn nearly tripled health costs in 12 years. Solutions really can't wait, but the problem is so large that it will probably require years of treatment.

The so-called energy crisis has only begun to affect consumers. Fierce debate is sure to rage concerning the real causes of our current and expected future energy shortages and price increases. The ability of consumer interests to cope with the extensive economic and natural resource questions involved will have an important bearing on prices and quantities. Use of the automobile, future development of the public transportation system, production of many high energy goods such as aluminum, low-cost home use of electricity, and many other consumer interests are at stake. Meanwhile, heating fuel shortages, brownouts, blackouts, and rising prices are going to occur for a while, at least regardless of the longterm outcome.

The State and local commitment to consumer affairs will lead to a reduction in the many local plagues on consumers. This will come increasingly through direct consumer participation in local and State advisory councils, regulatory boards, and similar developments. Consumers will increasingly discover the importance of installing the

consumer interest in the mechanisms of government. Consumers and consumer agencies will directly influence actions of tens of thousands of minor boards and agencies, including building inspectors, public hospitals, utility commissions, health inspectors, licensing boards, milk-price control boards, barber and beautician boards, mortician agencies, and more. This prediction relies on a faith that consumers will take the necessary initiatives in the various States, cities, counties, and towns.

FTC RULES ON DOOR-TO-DOOR AND MAIL-ORDER SELLING

Door-to-door and mail-order sales are the focus of two new regulations of the Federal Trade Commission (FTC). FTC has deferred announcement of an effective date for the two rules, due to pending litigation. A Federal district court ruled that FTC does not have the authority to make industrywide rules. This decision has been appealed to the U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals.

Under the first rule, door-to-door sellers must give consumers a 3-day cooling-off period in which they may cancel the sale without penalty or fee. The cancellation rights are to be incorporated in the sales contract; in addition, the seller must provide a written and oral explanation of the right to cancel. Only goods or services priced at \$25 or more and sold by uninvited door-to-door sellers are within the scope of this rule. It does not cover securities sold by registered brokers, real estate, or insurance; sales conducted entirely by mail or telephone; or sales stemming from prior negotiations at a place of business.

The second rule lays down guidelines for "negative option" selling, commonly used by book and record clubs and other merchandise plans. Under such plans the subscriber receives announcements of "selections" that will be shipped to him unless he notifies the supplier that he does not want them. The regulation requires suppliers to allow subscribers at least 10 days in which to return forms rejecting offers of merchandise. It also requires that promotional materials "clearly and conspicuously" state how to notify the supplier not to ship a selection; any requirement for purchasing a certain number of items in a time period; and the right of any subscriber to cancel his membership in the plan.

ISSUES IN CONTROLLING POLLUTION

H. G. Geyer, Extension Service

"Environmental pollution is the unfavorable alteration of our surroundings, wholly or largely as a by-product of man's actions, through direct or indirect effects of changes in energy patterns, radiation levels, chemical and physical constitution and abundances of organisms. These changes may affect man directly, or through his supplies of water and of agricultural and other biological products, his objects or possessions, or his opportunities for recreation and appreciation of nature." ^{1/}

This definition, appearing in the 1965 White House Report, was an introduction to a national concern that evolved into a continuing and increasingly aggressive effort to improve the quality of life, both nationally and internationally. It brought into focus the fact that there are specific interrelationships between the production of pollutants, technology, and standards of living. The vast amounts of diverse and novel materials generated by human activities degrade the quality of air, water, and land and in turn threaten the health, livelihood, recreation, cleanliness, and physical conditions of man.

The words "pollution" and "quality of life" have a diversity of meanings. For each, the interpretation will be influenced by education, knowledge, experience, occupation, income, and place of residence. Likewise, the same influences make it most difficult to arrive at unanimity of opinion or effort for program development and program execution aimed at solving or preventing environmental problems. Add to this the vastness and complexity of our environmental universe, and it is little wonder that frustrations develop as we search for handles with which to grapple with the problems. It is here that we should place the emphasis. A part cannot be attacked as an entity within itself. It must be attacked with the resolve to understand its relationship to the total. In other words, will our positive efforts at one point result in negative effects at another?

Pollution, because of its pervasive nature, disregards political boundaries be they State, national, or international. Recognition of this fact was reflected in 1972, when representatives from a majority of the countries assembled in Stockholm, Sweden, to address themselves to the international concern for the human environment. Actions during the last several years by the U.S. Congress and Executive Branch have clearly reflected an appreciation of these problems, but more importantly they have established a mandate for their prevention and control.

Legislation. -- Recognizing the profound impact that man's activities were having on the natural environment, Congress enacted the Environmental Policy Act of 1969. Specifically identified were the influences of population growth, high-density urbanization, industrial expansion, and resource exploitation. The purpose is clearly delineated "to declare a national policy which will encourage productive and enjoyable harmony

^{1/} Restoring the Quality of Our Environment, Report of the Environmental Pollution Panel, President's Advisory Committee, the White House, November 1965.

between man and his environment; to promote efforts which will prevent or eliminate damage to the environment and biosphere and stimulate the health and welfare of man."

Complementary legislation then followed. The Environmental Quality Act of 1970 revised responsibilities for Federal agencies, to assure compliance with environmental policies, and established the Council on Environmental Quality. The Environmental Education Act of 1970 has as its purpose the establishment of "educational programs to encourage understanding of policies and support of activities designed to enhance environmental quality and maintain ecological balance."

Legislation dealing with specific types of pollution has included the Rivers and Harbors Act of 1899, better known as the Refuse Act, which was enacted to protect the quality of navigable waters; the Federal Water Pollution Act, amended in 1972, with the objective to "restore and maintain the chemical, physical, and biological integrity of the Nation's waters;" the Water Resources Research and Water Resources Planning Acts; the Clean Air Act of 1955, amended in 1970; and the Solid Waste Disposal Act of 1965 and the Resource Recovery Act of 1970, concerning problems of solid waste.

Other legislation with specific pollution and environmental concerns includes the Fish and Wildlife Coordination Act; National Materials Policy Act; Federal Insecticide, Fungicide, and Rodenticide Act; and Occupational Safety and Health Act.

In addition to these acts, there are an extensive number of Executive Orders and memoranda to further clarify objectives and goals. It is quite pertinent to point out that it has become virtually necessary for the enactment of laws to protect man against himself. This was most succinctly brought into reality for all of us by the oft-quoted Pogo: "We have met the enemy and he is us."

Areas of concern. -- Approximately 215 million tons of air pollutants are discharged into the atmosphere annually. Illness and death have occurred from occupational or accidental exposure to toxic fumes, smoke, vapors, pesticide aerosols, and high concentrations of dust. Illness and discomfort stem from a diversity of allergens -- plant pollens, household dusts, pet hair, and dandruff. Communicable diseases (the common cold, tuberculosis, and influenza) may be transmitted by airborne micro-organisms, and atmospheric pollutants may also aggravate asthma and cause transient eye and respiratory infections.

Water is subject to pollution by a variety of micro-organisms, pesticides, and other toxic materials. Present water treatment methods evolve from efforts to control diseases such as typhoid fever, cholera, and dysentery, prevalent a century ago. In spite of this progress, many of our communities are consuming water of unknown quality, since they are not covered by U.S. public health standards. Even in those that are covered, the standards may need updating, especially with regard to chemical contaminants. Viruses (such as hepatitis) and bacterial pathogens still merit serious concern. There is need for increased monitoring of ground water for nitrates because of the health implications, especially for infants. There is need for constant reassessment of those pollutants emanating from both urban and industrial areas for their contribution to eutrophication, fish kills, and impairment of aesthetic and recreational value of streams.

A small number of human deaths from accidental poisoning, misuse, or deliberate ingestion of pesticides are reported annually. Of greater concern, however, are the long-range implications for human health of low-level ingestion of these compounds or

exposure to them singly or in combination. Also at issue is the use of pesticides in the home. We should first ask, "Why are they used?" The logical answer is, to solve a problem. But why the problem? A pest problem becomes a pollution problem only if an environment is created that is conducive to the pest's survival. Thus, the logical and most practical approach to pest control is the maintenance of an environment that is resistant to pest survival.

Hearing is one of man's most vital senses. When jeopardized or impaired, it can affect ability to function as a social being. Extended exposure to high noise-levels can cause hearing loss. The Labor Department has established standards under which the maximum allowable continuous noise exposure during an average working day shall not exceed 90 decibels weighted (dBA). Although this level satisfies Labor Department regulations, continuous exposure at this level will result in 15 percent of the exposed population's developing a hearing handicap. Also with respect to noise pollution, additional attention needs to be given to the home environment. What acute or subtle changes may result from exposure to the ever increasing use of noise producing appliances in the home? How frequently do we consider the potential pathological implications of such exposure to both adults and youth? It must be kept in mind that responses to environmental forces cannot be weighed only from the standpoint of the present, but must also be considered in light of their future consequences.

As a Nation, we generate approximately 4.5 billion tons of solid wastes annually. Agriculture contributes over 50 percent; mineral waste represents about 40 percent; residential, commercial, and institutional wastes are combined for 6 percent; and industrial waste is about 3 percent. Refuse collected in urban areas has increased from 2.75 pounds per person per day in 1920 to 5 pounds in 1970 with an expected 8 pounds in 1980.^{2/} However, only about three-fourths of the residential, commercial, and institutional solid waste was collected.^{3/} Equally significant are the following average daily rates for haulaway trash: hospitals--8 pounds per bed, schools--10 pounds per room plus one pound per four pupils, apartments--5 pounds per unit plus one pound per bedroom, office space--1 pound per square foot.^{4/}

In addition to the foregoing, there are a variety of social, psychological and aesthetic pollutants that impinge on human development, health, and welfare. The solution to pollution problems depends on an understanding of their effects on the environmental forces that directly and indirectly affect the welfare of man.

^{2/} Environmental Quality: The First Annual Report of the Council on Environmental Quality (CEQ), Washington, D.C., August 1970, p. 106.

^{3/} Ibid., p. 107.

^{4/} Grounds Maintenance, March 1971, p. 34.

SOCIAL SECURITY BENEFITS INCREASE

Beneficiaries of the Federal old-age, survivors, disability, and health insurance program (OASDHI) received increases of approximately 20 percent in their monthly checks as of September 1972. These increases, resulting from July 1972 amendments to the Social Security Act, mean an additional \$7.9 billion a year for the 28.1 million persons receiving Social Security at the end of August last year.

The average monthly cash benefit increased \$27.75 for retired-worker beneficiaries. Among survivor beneficiaries the average benefit increase ranged from \$18.34 for the children of insured deceased workers to \$23.31 for nondisabled widows and widowers. The average monthly cash benefit under old and new rates by type of beneficiary is shown below:

<u>Type of beneficiary</u>	<u>Persons receiving benefits</u>	<u>Average amount received</u>	
		<u>Old rates</u>	<u>New rates</u>
		Dollars	Dollars
Total - - - - -	28,109,567	--	--
Retired workers and dependents - - -	17,692,490	--	--
Retired workers - - - - -	14,392,459	133.62	161.47
Wives and husbands - - - - -	2,727,021	68.73	83.76
Children - - - - -	573,010	49.81	59.80
Disabled workers and dependents - -	3,148,718	--	--
Disabled workers - - - - -	1,776,402	148.65	178.64
Wives and husbands - - - - -	335,821	45.63	55.14
Children - - - - -	1,036,495	41.50	49.98
Survivors of deceased workers - - -	6,841,421	--	--
Widowed mothers - - - - -	540,655	95.97	115.21
Children - - - - -	2,802,967	91.50	109.84
Widows and widowers, nondisabled -	3,409,605	114.43	137.74
Widows and widowers, disabled - -	61,766	89.70	109.65
Parents - - - - -	26,428	115.39	138.50
Special age - 72 beneficiaries - - - -	426,938	--	--
Primary - - - - -	418,342	48.07	57.70
Wives - - - - -	8,596	24.17	28.95

In October 1972, the President signed into law additional amendments to the Social Security Act. These amendments liberalized several of the cash benefit provisions, made substantial changes in Medicare, revised the contribution schedule, amended some coverage provisions, and established a new Federal security income program for the needy, aged, blind, and disabled.

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social Security Administration. Social Security Bulletin. January 1973.

NEW REPORTS FROM THE 1965-66 HOUSEHOLD FOOD CONSUMPTION SURVEY

Five new reports in the 1965-66 Household Food Consumption Survey series are now available from USDA. Single copies are free from ARS Information, Room 346, Federal Center Building #1, Hyattsville, Md. 20782. When ordering, please refer to the series, report number(s), and title(s) as listed below.

1965-66 Household Food Consumption Survey Series

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| Report No. 13. | Food Consumption of Households in the Northeast, Seasons and Year, 1965-66. |
| Report No. 14. | Food Consumption of Households in the North Central Region, Seasons and Year, 1965-66. |
| Report No. 15. | Food Consumption of Households in the South, Seasons and Year, 1965-66. |
| Report No. 16. | Food Consumption of Households in the West, Seasons and Year, 1965-66. |
| Report No. 17. | Food Consumption of Households by Money Value of Food and Quality of Diet--United States, North, South. |

SOME NEW USDA PUBLICATIONS

(Please give your ZIP code in your return address when you order these.)

The following publications are for sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402:

- . COMO COMPRAR LOS HUEVOS (How to Buy Eggs). G-144-S.
September 1972. 10 cents.
- . BE WISE--CONSUMERS' QUICK CREDIT GUIDE. (Unnumbered).
October 1972. 5 cents.

Single copies of the following are available free from the U.S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C. 20250. Please address your request to the office indicated.

From Office of Communication:

- . BE SAFE FROM INSECTS IN RECREATION AREAS. G 200.
October 1972.
- . GROWING VEGETABLES IN THE HOME GARDEN. G 202.
December 1972.
- . MAINTAINING SUBSURFACE DRAINS. L 557. October 1972.

From Information Division, Office of Management Services:

- . FOOD RETAILING IN THE CLEVELAND, OHIO, METROPOLITAN
AREA--WITH EMPHASIS ON THE INNER CITY. MRR 976.
October 1972.
- . FOOD DATING: SHOPPERS' REACTIONS AND THE IMPACT ON
RETAIL FOOD STORES. MRR 984. January 1973.

COST OF FOOD AT HOME

Cost of food at home estimated for food plans at three cost levels, December 1972, U.S. average 1/

Sex-age groups <u>2/</u>	Cost for 1 week			Cost for 1 month		
	Low-cost plan	Moderate-cost plan	Liberal plan	Low-cost plan	Moderate-cost plan	Liberal plan
	<u>Dollars</u>	<u>Dollars</u>	<u>Dollars</u>	<u>Dollars</u>	<u>Dollars</u>	<u>Dollars</u>
<u>FAMILIES</u>						
Family of 2:						
20 to 35 years <u>3/</u> -----	19.90	25.40	31.10	86.10	110.20	135.10
55 to 75 years <u>3/</u> -----	16.30	21.20	25.50	70.50	92.10	110.50
Family of 4:						
Preschool children <u>4/</u> -	28.80	36.80	44.70	124.90	159.70	194.20
School children <u>5/</u> ----	33.50	43.00	52.60	145.00	186.30	228.40
<u>INDIVIDUALS 6/</u>						
Children, under 1 year -	3.80	4.80	5.40	16.70	21.00	23.50
1 to 3 years -----	4.90	6.20	7.40	21.30	26.80	32.20
3 to 6 years -----	5.80	7.50	9.00	25.30	32.70	39.20
6 to 9 years -----	7.10	9.20	11.40	30.80	39.70	49.50
Girls, 9 to 12 years ---	8.10	10.50	12.30	35.00	45.50	53.30
12 to 15 years -----	8.90	11.60	14.10	38.60	50.40	61.00
15 to 20 years -----	9.10	11.60	13.80	39.50	50.10	59.60
Boys, 9 to 12 years ----	8.30	10.70	12.90	35.90	46.40	56.10
12 to 15 years -----	9.70	12.80	15.20	41.90	55.40	66.10
15 to 20 years -----	11.20	14.30	17.20	48.40	61.80	74.60
Women, 20 to 35 years --	8.40	10.70	12.90	36.40	46.60	56.00
35 to 55 years -----	8.10	10.40	12.50	34.90	44.90	54.00
55 to 75 years -----	6.80	8.90	10.60	29.50	38.60	46.00
75 years and over ----	6.20	7.90	9.70	26.80	34.20	41.90
Pregnant -----	10.00	12.50	14.80	43.20	54.30	64.20
Nursing -----	11.50	14.40	16.80	50.00	62.30	72.90
Men, 20 to 35 years ----	9.70	12.40	15.40	41.90	53.60	66.80
35 to 55 years -----	9.00	11.50	14.10	39.00	49.80	60.90
55 to 75 years -----	8.00	10.40	12.60	34.60	45.10	54.50
75 years and over ----	7.50	10.00	12.10	32.30	43.50	52.40

1/ Estimates computed from quantities in food plans published in Family Economics Review, October 1964. Costs of the plans were first estimated by using average price per pound of each food group paid by urban survey families at 3 income levels in 1965. These prices were adjusted to current levels by use of Retail Food Prices by Cities, released by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

2/ Persons of the first age listed up to but not including the second age.

3/ 10 percent added for family size adjustment.

4/ Man and woman, 20 to 35 years; children 1 to 3 and 3 to 6 years.

5/ Man and woman, 20 to 35 years; child 6 to 9; and boy 9 to 12 years.

6/ Costs given for persons in families of 4. For other size families, adjust thus: 1-person, add 20 percent; 2-person, add 10 percent; 3-person, add 5 percent; 5-person, subtract 5 percent; 6-or-more-person, subtract 10 percent.

Table 2.--Cost of 1 week's food at home estimated for food plans at 3 cost levels, December 1972, for Northeast and North Central Regions 1/

Sex-age groups 2/	Northeast			North Central		
	Low-cost plan	Moderate-cost plan	Liberal plan	Low-cost plan	Moderate-cost plan	Liberal plan
	Dollars	Dollars	Dollars	Dollars	Dollars	Dollars
<u>FAMILIES</u>						
Family of two, 20 to 35 years 3/ ----	22.10	28.20	33.20	19.80	24.40	30.10
Family of two, 55 to 75 years 3/ ----	18.00	23.40	27.30	16.30	20.30	24.40
Family of four, preschool children 4/	32.00	40.90	47.90	28.70	35.30	43.30
Family of four, school children 5/ --	37.20	47.80	56.30	33.30	41.10	50.90
<u>INDIVIDUALS 6/</u>						
Children, under 1 year ----	4.20	5.40	5.80	3.80	4.60	5.20
1 to 3 years ----	5.40	6.90	8.00	4.90	5.90	7.20
3 to 6 years ----	6.50	8.40	9.70	5.80	7.20	8.70
6 to 9 years ----	7.90	10.20	12.30	7.10	8.70	11.00
Girls, 9 to 12 years ----	9.00	11.70	13.20	8.00	10.00	11.90
12 to 15 years ----	9.90	13.00	15.20	8.80	11.00	13.50
15 to 20 years ----	10.10	12.90	14.80	9.00	11.00	13.20
Boys, 9 to 12 years ----	9.20	12.00	13.80	8.20	10.20	12.50
12 to 15 years ----	10.80	14.30	16.30	9.60	12.20	14.80
15 to 20 years ----	12.50	15.90	18.40	11.20	13.60	16.80
Women, 20 to 35 years ----	9.30	11.90	13.80	8.30	10.30	12.40
35 to 55 years ----	9.00	11.50	13.30	8.00	9.90	11.90
55 to 75 years ----	7.50	9.80	11.40	6.80	8.50	10.10
75 years and over ----	6.80	8.70	10.40	6.20	7.50	9.20
Pregnant ----	11.00	13.90	15.80	9.90	12.00	14.20
Nursing ----	12.80	16.00	18.00	11.60	13.80	16.30
Men, 20 to 35 years ----	10.80	13.70	16.40	9.70	11.90	15.00
35 to 55 years ----	10.00	12.80	15.00	9.00	11.00	13.60
55 to 75 years ----	8.90	11.50	13.40	8.00	10.00	12.10
75 years and over ----	8.30	11.10	12.90	7.50	9.60	11.60

See footnotes 1 to 6 of table 1, p.

Table 3.--Cost of 1 week's food at home estimated for food plans at 3 cost levels, December 1972, for Southern and Western Regions 1/

Sex-age groups <u>2/</u>	South				West			
	Low-cost plan		Another low-cost plan <u>7/</u>	Moderate-cost plan	Liberal plan	Low-cost plan	Moderate-cost plan	Liberal plan
	Dollars	Dollars	Dollars	Dollars	Dollars	Dollars	Dollars	Dollars
<u>FAMILIES</u>								
Family of two, 20 to 35 years <u>3/</u> ---	18.50	17.70	23.90	29.00	20.30	24.70	30.60	
Family of two, 55 to 75 years <u>3/</u> ---	15.10	14.20	20.00	23.80	16.60	20.80	25.00	
Family of four, preschool children <u>4/</u>	26.80	25.80	34.60	41.90	29.60	36.00	43.80	
Family of four, school children <u>5/</u> --	31.10	29.90	40.30	49.20	34.40	41.90	51.50	
<u>INDIVIDUALS <u>6/</u></u>								
Children, under 1 year -----	3.60	3.50	4.60	5.20	3.90	4.70	5.20	
1 to 3 years -----	4.60	4.40	5.80	7.00	5.10	6.10	7.20	
3 to 6 years -----	5.40	5.30	7.10	8.50	6.00	7.40	8.80	
6 to 9 years -----	6.60	6.50	8.60	10.70	7.30	8.90	11.10	
Girls, 9 to 12 years -----	7.50	7.10	9.90	11.50	8.30	10.30	12.00	
12 to 15 years -----	8.30	7.90	11.00	13.30	9.20	11.40	13.70	
15 to 20 years -----	8.50	8.10	11.00	13.00	9.30	11.30	13.40	
Boys, 9 to 12 years -----	7.70	7.30	10.00	12.10	8.60	10.50	12.60	
12 to 15 years -----	9.00	8.80	12.00	14.30	10.00	12.50	14.80	
15 to 20 years -----	10.40	10.00	13.40	16.10	11.50	13.90	16.70	
Women, 20 to 35 years -----	7.80	7.50	10.10	12.10	8.60	10.50	12.70	
35 to 55 years -----	7.50	7.10	9.80	11.70	8.20	10.10	12.30	
55 to 75 years -----	6.30	5.80	8.40	9.90	6.90	8.70	10.40	
75 years and over -----	5.80	5.40	7.50	9.10	6.30	7.70	9.50	
Pregnant -----	9.30	9.00	11.80	13.90	10.20	12.20	14.50	
Nursing -----	10.80	10.50	13.50	15.70	11.80	14.00	16.40	
Men, 20 to 35 years -----	9.00	8.60	11.60	14.30	9.90	12.00	15.10	
35 to 55 years -----	8.40	8.00	10.80	13.00	9.20	11.20	13.80	
55 to 75 years -----	7.40	7.10	9.80	11.70	8.20	10.20	12.30	
75 years and over -----	7.00	6.70	9.50	11.30	7.60	9.80	11.90	

See footnotes 1 to 6 of table 1, p.

7/ Special adaptation of low-cost plan especially suitable for food habits in the Southeastern States.

CONSUMER PRICES
Consumer Price Index for Urban Wage Earners and Clerical Workers
(1967 = 100)

Group	Jan. 1973	Dec. 1972	Nov. 1972	Jan. 1972
All items -----	127.7	127.3	126.9	123.2
Food -----	128.6	126.0	125.4	120.3
Food at home -----	127.2	124.1	123.4	118.2
Food away from home -----	134.2	133.7	133.3	128.6
Housing -----	131.2	131.4	130.8	127.3
Shelter -----	136.9	136.8	136.2	132.3
Rent -----	121.5	121.0	120.5	117.1
Homeownership -----	142.6	142.6	142.0	137.8
Fuel and utilities -----	122.8	121.9	121.7	118.7
Fuel oil and coal -----	120.7	119.4	119.3	118.7
Gas and electricity -----	124.1	122.5	122.2	119.0
Household furnishings and operation -	122.2	122.3	122.1	119.5
Apparel and upkeep -----	123.0	125.0	125.0	120.2
Men's and boys' -----	123.5	124.8	124.8	119.9
Women's and girls' -----	122.2	126.4	126.5	120.2
Footwear -----	126.6	127.3	127.1	122.7
Transportation -----	121.0	121.3	121.4	119.0
Private -----	118.5	118.9	119.0	116.4
Public -----	144.3	144.5	144.1	143.4
Health and recreation -----	127.8	127.5	127.4	124.3
Medical care -----	134.9	134.4	134.1	130.5
Personal care -----	121.8	121.5	121.0	118.1
Reading and recreation -----	124.1	124.0	124.1	121.4
Other goods and services -----	126.7	126.5	126.4	123.5

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Index of Prices Paid by Farmers for Family Living Items
(1967 = 100)

Item	Feb. 1973	Jan. 1973	Dec. 1972	Nov. 1972	Oct. 1972	Sept. 1972	Feb. 1972
All items -----	131	129	127	127	125	126	123
Food and tobacco -----	-	-	123	-	-	122	-
Clothing -----	-	-	138	-	-	135	-
Household operation -----	-	-	122	-	-	122	-
Household furnishings -----	-	-	120	-	-	119	-
Building materials, house -	-	-	140	-	-	137	-

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Statistical Reporting Service.

